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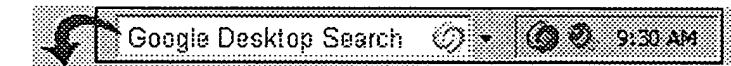
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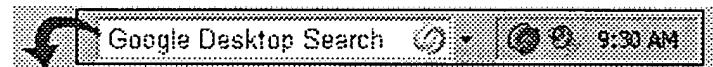
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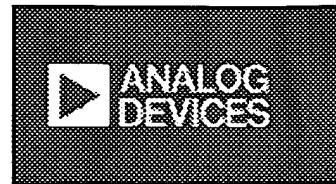
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Capturing Real-Time Requirements

By Bruce Powel Douglass

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Requirements are too often co-mingled with design elements. It's time to focus on capturing only the essentials, with UML.

Many developers regard requirements capture with a disdain born of Windows crashes and Richard Simmons exercise videos. They spend time that diverts them from what they ought to be doing: crank out code. However, in a requirements-driven process, the developers always know what they're doing actually relates to the goals and purposes of the system.

To properly understand what features ought to be designed and implemented as well as how they ought to work, it is necessary to have a deep understanding of the following concepts: the purposes of the system; the workflow (if applicable) with respect to the system; the set of features the system must have; the devices with which it must interact and how those interactions should work; what should happen when something expected or "bad" occurs; and the features must be visible to the user and the external devices. This part of the requirements or specification of the system. If you understand requirements thoroughly, your development work will be more productive, have less reworking to do, and your customers will be happy.

In a requirements-centric development, all work relates in some way to the requirements specification of the system. Early in analysis, we try to understand how the system fits into its environment (including the user). Soon we detail exactly which features we want the system to provide to work in that environment and exactly how we want those features implemented in the system's environment. Later, we design the internal system to meet those specifications, and finally we construct test and validation system to ensure the appropriate level of completeness, fidelity, and consistency.

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I find that real-time and embedded developers often have difficulty requirements from design. The chosen design is usually just one of of meeting the requirements. Many bright and experienced develop the design aspect so ingrained in them that they find this distinctio have developed an approach for understanding, capturing, and ma requirements based on my work with complex projects at NASA an which is the focus of this article. This approach is part of the ROPE:

Types of requirements

Just as there are two kinds of people (those who divide people into those who don't), there are two kinds of requirements: functional & service. Functional requirements encompass what the system shou it should behave in a variety of circumstances. For example:

- The system shall adjust the angle of the telescope under use
- The system shall deliver anesthetic agents in gaseous form a concentration.
- Locking clamps shall engage when the elevator cable breaks.
- The device shall alarm if the heart rate falls below 30 beats p

Quality of service (QoS) requirements specify how well a functiona shall be accomplished. In real-time and embedded systems, QoS r may specify properties of the system (for example, range, speed, t capacity, reliability, maintainability, evolvability, time to market, si predictability, schedulability), or properties of the process. As a rul it's something that can be quantified or optimized, then it is a QoS For example (QoS requirements italicized):

- The angle of the telescope shall be set in units of 0.1 degrees: maximum error of 0.01 degrees.
- The anesthetic agent shall be controllable from 0.00% to 5.0 in units of 0.01% with an accuracy of 0.005%.
- Locking clamps shall engage in the event of an elevator supp

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breakage within less than 0.5 seconds.

- The device shall alarm within 10 seconds if the heart rate fall beats per minute.

The defining characteristic of real-time systems is the level to which requirements figure into the correctness of the system. In non-real-time is acceptable. In real-time systems, late is unacceptable. Put another way, a real-time system is not necessarily fast, but it is predictably timely. Real-time systems may be hard real-time, which means that responses for aperiodic systems or actions taken when a periodic task begins (systems) must complete by a specified deadline.

Systems may also be soft real-time. For example:

- Event responses shall be handled on average within a certain timeframe.
- A certain number of event responses shall be handled within a certain timeframe.
- A specified failure rate is permitted.

Because the mathematics required to analyze soft real-time systems is more difficult than for the simpler, hard real-time case, it is very common to analyze real-time systems as hard real-time to simplify the analysis. [2] This approach is an overdesign of the system, with, typically, an increase in recurring cost due to the overdesigned hardware platform.

In my approach, functional requirements are modeled as use cases. Use cases are specifications, actions, and message sequences. QoS requirements are constraints of some kind, applied against one or more functional requirements.

Use cases

A use case is a named coherent collection of related requirements centered around system capability. A use case is large-scale, typically consisting of three to 10 pages of textual requirements. Use cases define little in the way of specific requirements per se, but they serve as a way to organize a system. A good use case:

- Focuses on the user's or actor's perspective of the system (not the implementation of its interfaces or its internals)
- Captures a closely related set of requirements
- Returns a result visible to one or more actors
- Does not reveal or imply system internal structure or implementation
- Is independent from other use cases and may be concurrent
- Consists of a set of messages exchanged between the system and one or more actors (more than just one!)

Relationships among use cases can be used, but there's a caveat: newcomers to use case modeling use these relationships to do a full decomposition of the system's internal structure; this is not what I mean by use case relations. The purpose of use case relations is to depict relations among the requirements. The most common relations are specializations (more specific) of the dependency relation (shown using a dashed line with an arrow).



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arrowhead). The <<includes>> relation means that a larger use case includes a smaller one. For example, a use case for a spacecraft might be "Take a picture of a planet" and another might be "Send information to Earth-side Station". Executing each of these use cases involves rolling the spacecraft to the correct orientation—either to point the camera at the planet or to aim the antenna at Earth. Thus, they could both <<includes>> a smaller use case, such as "Set Attitude."

<<extends>> is similar to <<includes>> except that the smaller use case is optional and only used in certain situations. For example, suppose commands sent to a spacecraft could potentially lead to a loss of the antenna. You might want user validation and authorization guaranteed before sending such commands. In this case, the larger "Process Ground Command" use case might be extended by a "Validate User."

Additionally, one use case may be more general or specific than another. For example, there may be multiple ways to do a Validate User use case: Authorization Code, Validate by Fingerprint Scan, or Validate by Voice Recognition. Each of these is a specialized form of the general Validate User use case.

We will use these relations in a very specific way when we capture requirements for large complex systems.

Detailed requirements

Since a use case is a container of detailed requirements, just providing the use case isn't enough. We need to provide the details. In the process we call this "detailing the use case."

There are two primary means to detail a use case—by example or by specification. By far, the most common is by example. This is done by constructing scenarios of message exchange between the system and the actors associated with that use case. This approach has advantages and disadvantages. The advantages include the simplicity of the representation and the fact that which non-technical stakeholders can understand how the system interacts with respect to the use case. The disadvantages include the fact that a use case can be represented by an infinite set of scenarios; the number that is actually used must be trimmed down somehow. Also, there is typically no way to specify prototypical behaviors.

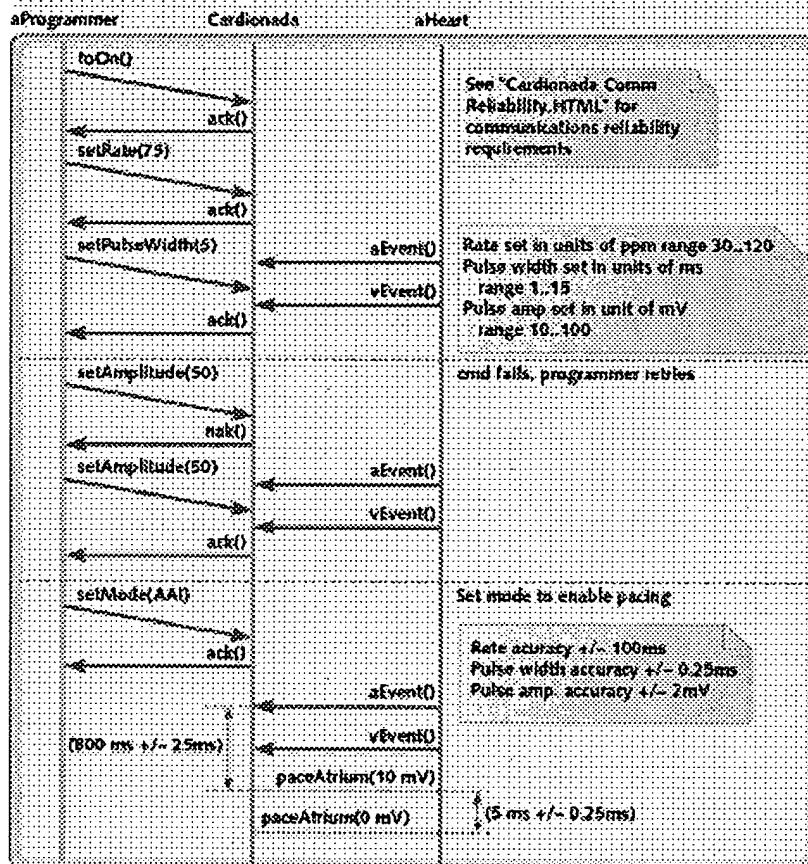
Detailing a use case by specification gets around these disadvantages by providing a single location for the details that applies to each of the infinite scenarios. It can also state prohibitions as requirements. On the downside, particular formal languages (such as statecharts) are used to specify requirements, and a high level of domain knowledge and digit IQ is required, which may disallow certain managers and marketing people from understanding the requirements. My recommendation is to generally use examples, as we will see later.

Scenarios and message sequence charts

A scenario is a specific path through a use case. The most common way of representing a scenario is a message sequence chart, as shown in Figure 1. The chart shows the interactions between the system and the actors.

are called instance lines, and at the system specification level, they prefer to use the use case because it helps me identify the context of the particular scenario. Note that at this level, we do not include objects of the system. Looking ahead, later we will add internal objects to our scenario to show how our designs actually meet our requirements, but they should not be part of the system-level use case scenarios. The goal at this point is to capture requirements, not design.

Figure 1: Scenario example



A typical system might have anywhere from half a dozen to a dozen use cases, and each use case might have half a dozen to several dozen scenarios. Since there is an infinite set from which the scenarios can be drawn, how do you decide which ones to explicitly represent? The ROPES process guides you to add scenarios to a use case only when they demonstrate or depict something new or important. You're done when you can't come up with any more scenarios that add a new requirement.

Functional requirements are shown on sequence diagrams as ordered sequences. That is, you're showing that a particular sequence of messages must be allowed. If the order within a message set is unimportant, you can apply a constraint `{unordered}` to the set of messages. QoS requirements are constraints that attach to the instance lines, individual messages, or message sets. The most common constraints are timeliness constraints applied to an ordered pair of messages. In Figure 1, a timing constraint is shown at the bottom using a common notation: a vertical line between two horizontal bars marking points in time on the scenario. Other QoS

shown in note boxes on the right of the diagram.

Specifications for requirements capture

The other primary approach to detailing requirements is to do it by Either informal or formal languages can be used, or a combination informal languages, we usually mean written specifications. Some elaborate fields used to specify the use case. For example, Schneic suggest:[3]

- Use case name
- Actors
- Priority (project)
- Status (project)
- Preconditions
- Postconditions
- Extension points
- Included use cases
- Flow of events
- List of related diagrams (sequence, statechart, activity, and :)

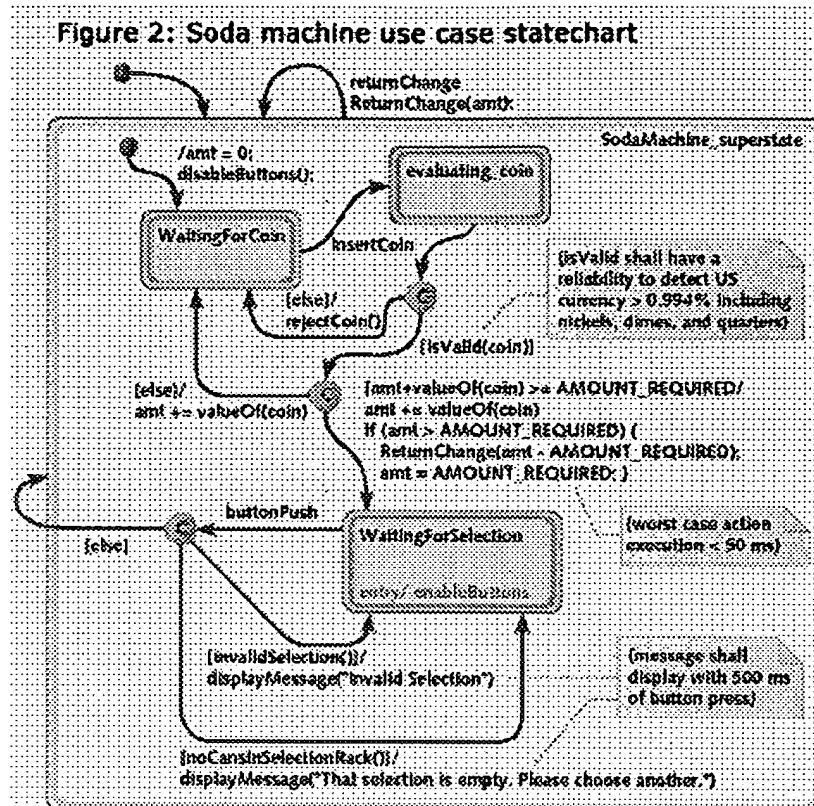
Of these, I feel only the preconditions and postconditions are required things are shown using other views (such as the diagrams themselves).

For formal languages, the UML provides the statechart and its cousin chart. Statecharts are most applicable when the use case has states distinguishable conditions of existence as defined by a set of events accepted, behaviors performed, and reachability of subsequent states. use case is in State A, it accepts a certain set of messages and even certain set of behaviors, and can reach a finite set of other states. distinguishable from other such states in that one or more of these different. When an autopilot is executing "Controlling Flight Path," certain things it can and cannot do when taking off vs. when in cruise states.

Activity charts are just a specialized form of a statechart. Activity charts show when the primary means to transition from one state to the next depends on completion of the actions executed within a state rather than upon an explicit message or event from somewhere else.

Consider a soda pop machine with two actors (the Customer and the Soda Rep). Let's focus on a Deliver Soda Can use case. It is difficult to list individually all the possible ways in which users might insert coins into buttons to get a can of soda from the machine, even without the ability to change the price. However, it is relatively straightforward to do so using an activity diagram shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Soda machine use case statechart



The statechart in the figure has only four states to manage the transaction: user inserting coins and selecting the desired flavor of soda. [4] All states directly relevant to the specification of the use case are shown on the statechart (although not their implementation). Notice also that no internal operations are identified, but some data are: specifically, amt tracks how much the user has entered, and AMOUNT_REQUIRED is the cost of a single can of soda. The various operations used within the actions, but it isn't at all implied where they are or how they relate to each other.

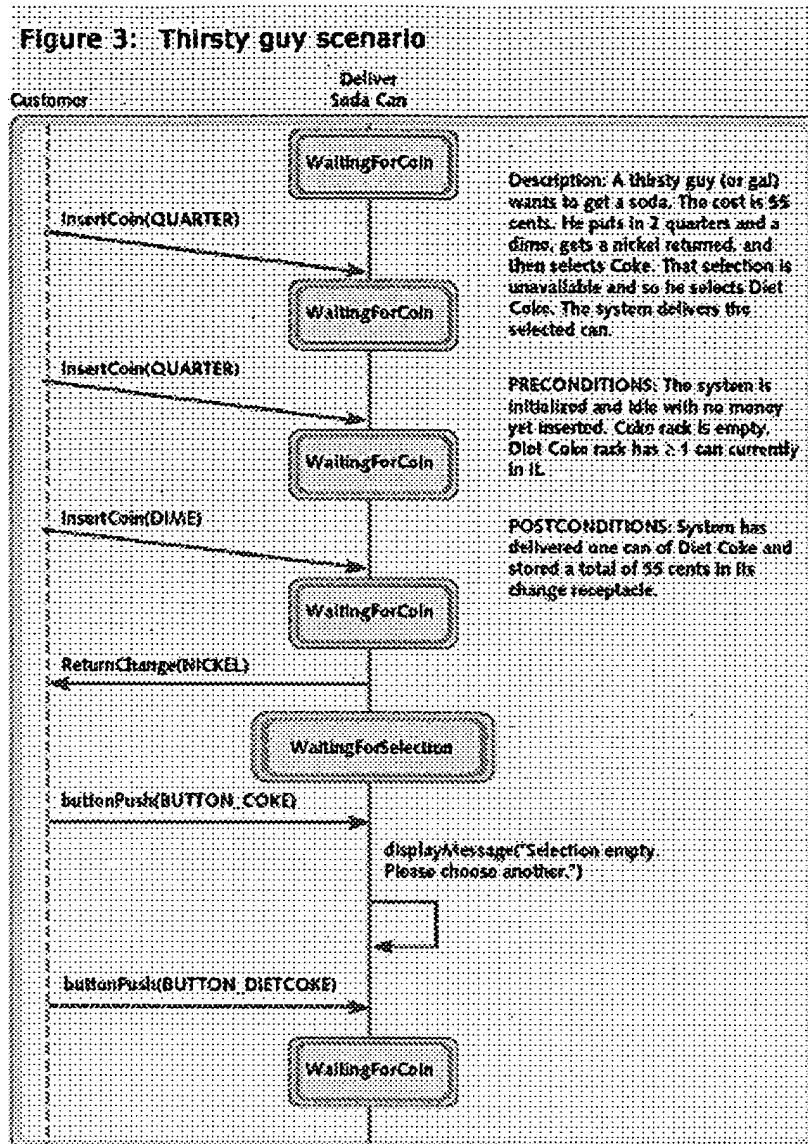
In fact, a set of objects will realize this use case (that's UML-speak "implement"). All that we can be sure of is that, in any correct design specified will collectively be able to provide the services as specified in statechart in Figure 2.

In the final analysis, either statecharts or activity diagrams can be specification of requirements.

Relating specifications and scenarios

When you use a formal language, such as statecharts, to specify a scenario, you are capturing the entire infinite set of scenarios all in one place. A scenario is nothing more than a particular path through the statechart. For example, the scenario in Figure 12-12 shows one particular scenario represented by this statechart. In this scenario, the customer buys a soda. The cost of the soda is 55 cents. The customer puts in two quarters and receives a nickel in change. Then he selects Coke, but there is no Coke available. The machine displays a message to that effect. The customer then selects Coke and the system delivers it. Notice that some of the relevant states and transitions in the state machine are shown on the use case instance line—this aids the reader in relating the scenario back to the statechart specification.

Figure 3: Thirsty guy scenario



Of course, there are other paths through the statechart; these are scenarios. In general, you will want to construct the set of scenario statechart. You do this by making a different scenario for every different path through the statechart, although you'll only want to do the looping and representative examples of the concurrent regions (and-states)

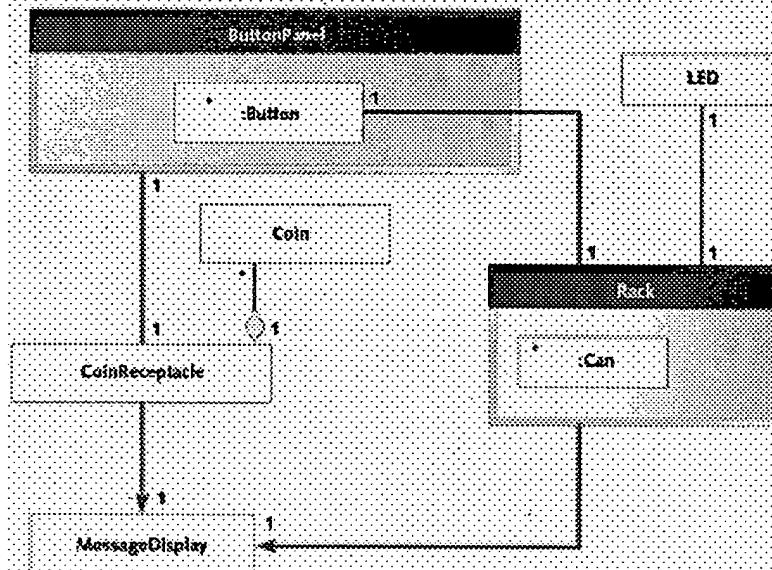
Moving from requirements into design

As mentioned earlier, a use case is ultimately realized by a set of objects together to provide the necessary behavior. This set of objects is a collaboration in UML. It has a specific notation (a dashed oval) that is commonly used. Most often, the use case collaboration is shown as a diagram, showing the relevant classes of the objects that participate in the collaboration.

Getting a good set of objects can be tricky, as it is not at all obvious what the case model. In the ROPES process, you use object identification strategies to identify the object participating in the collaboration. The ROPES process includes about a dozen different strategies which, while different and distinct,

the objects they find to a significant degree. Commonly, you will apply four different strategies simultaneously to identify all objects in the system. Using such an approach, one could come up with an object model something like what is shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Soda machine collaboration class diagram

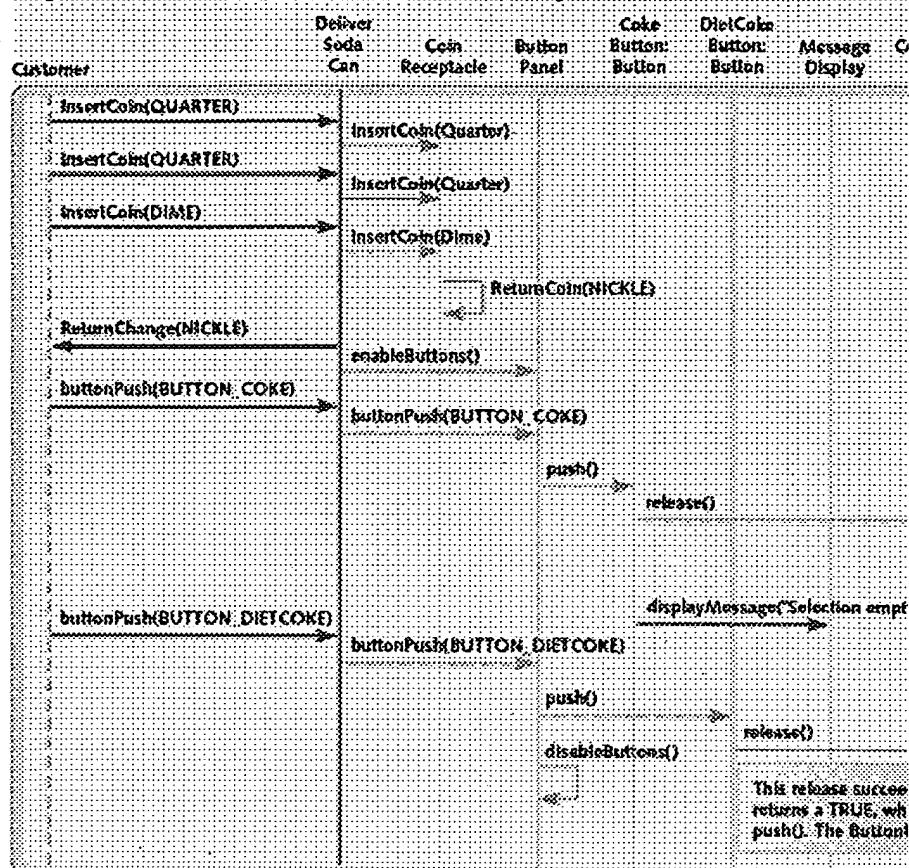


The really important question is how do you ensure and demonstrate that your design model really does realize the use case model? The answer is to execute. We evaluate and demonstrate the adequacy of a design by executing that design model. Specifically, we want to execute the various scenarios we used to state requirements using the newly added design elements. If the design can execute all of the requirements then we've done well. If not, then we need to fix our design model.

To do this, first we come up with a set of scenarios at the system level where the players are the actors and The System (or the system part of a specific use case). To test the adequacy of a design, we do the scenarios but now we add the design elements to the scenario and the exchange of messages among them necessary to fully realize the scenario.

Figure 5 is the same scenario shown in Figure 3, but we've added the collaborative elements from the class diagram. [5] We can walk this scenario and see how the objects inside the system collaborate to realize the scenario.

Figure 5: Thirsty guy scenario with design detail



This approach of validation via execution can be applied at any level of abstraction. As we add more detail to a highly complex system with many components, and composite classes, we can be sure that we're doing the right thing when, at the specified level of abstraction, it executes all of the steps for the use case.

This approach means that even if you use statecharts to specify requirements, you will also draw scenarios. Since a statechart can have loops and regions, it can represent an infinite set of scenarios. Which scenarios should you draw and trace through the levels of design abstraction? Again, the process has an answer: draw a scenario for every non-looping path through states and each looping path exactly once; for concurrent regions, draw representative interleaving of the concurrent regions.

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Endnotes

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[Back](#)

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[Back](#)

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[Back](#)

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[Back](#)

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[Back](#)

[Return to November 2001 Table of Contents](#)

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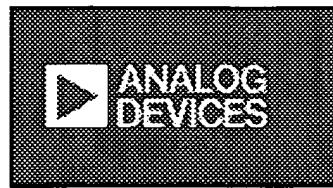
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Capturing Real-Time Requirements

By Bruce Powel Douglass

[Embedded Systems Programming](#)

(11/01/01, 09:37:50 AM EST)

PRINT

Requirements are too often co-mingled with design elements. One way to focus on capturing only the essentials, with UML.

Many developers regard requirements capture with a disdain born of Windows crashes and Richard Simmons exercise videos. They spend time that diverts them from what they ought to be doing: crank out code. However, in a requirements-driven process, the developers always know what they're doing actually relates to the goals and purposes of the system.

To properly understand what features ought to be designed and implemented as well as how they ought to work, it is necessary to have a deep understanding of the following concepts: the purposes of the system; the workflow (if applicable) with respect to the system; the set of features the system must have; the devices with which it must interact and how those interactions should work; what should happen when something expected or "bad" occurs; and what the features must be visible to the user and the external devices. If you understand requirements thoroughly, your development work will be more productive, have less reworking to do, and your customers will be happy.

In a requirements-centric development, all work relates in some way to the requirements specification of the system. Early in analysis, we try to understand how the system fits into its environment (including the user). Soon after, we detail exactly which features we want the system to provide to work in that environment and exactly how we want those features to interact with other elements in the system's environment. Later, we design the internal structure of the system to meet those specifications, and finally we construct test and validation system to ensure the appropriate level of completeness, fidelity, and consistency.

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I find that real-time and embedded developers often have difficulty requirements from design. The chosen design is usually just one of meeting the requirements. Many bright and experienced develop the design aspect so ingrained in them that they find this distinctio have developed an approach for understanding, capturing, and ma requirements based on my work with complex projects at NASA an which is the focus of this article. This approach is part of the ROPE:

Types of requirements

Just as there are two kinds of people (those who divide people into those who don't), there are two kinds of requirements: functional & service. Functional requirements encompass what the system shou it should behave in a variety of circumstances. For example:

- The system shall adjust the angle of the telescope under use
- The system shall deliver anesthetic agents in gaseous form a concentration.
- Locking clamps shall engage when the elevator cable breaks.
- The device shall alarm if the heart rate falls below 30 beats p

Quality of service (QoS) requirements specify how well a functiona shall be accomplished. In real-time and embedded systems, QoS n may specify properties of the system (for example, range, speed, t capacity, reliability, maintainability, evolvability, time to market, si predictability, schedulability), or properties of the process. As a rul it's something that can be quantified or optimized, then it is a QoS For example (QoS requirements italicized):

- The angle of the telescope shall be set in units of 0.1 degree: maximum error of 0.01 degrees.
- The anesthetic agent shall be controllable from 0.00% to 5.0 in units of 0.01% with an accuracy of 0.005%.
- Locking clamps shall engage in the event of an elevator supp

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breakage within less than 0.5 seconds.

- The device shall alarm within 10 seconds if the heart rate fall beats per minute.

The defining characteristic of real-time systems is the level to which requirements figure into the correctness of the system. In non-real-time is acceptable. In real-time systems, late is unacceptable. Put another way, a real-time system is not necessarily fast, but it is predictably timely. Real-time systems may be hard real-time, which means that responses for aperiodic systems or actions taken when a periodic task begins (systems) must complete by a specified deadline.

Systems may also be soft real-time. For example:

- Event responses shall be handled on average within a certain time frame.
- A certain number of event responses shall be handled within a certain time frame.
- A specified failure rate is permitted.

Because the mathematics required to analyze soft real-time systems is more difficult than for the simpler, hard real-time case, it is very common to analyze real-time systems as hard real-time to simplify the analysis. [2] This approach is an overdesign of the system, with, typically, an increase in recurring cost due to the overdesigned hardware platform.

In my approach, functional requirements are modeled as use cases. Use cases specify functional requirements, actions, and message sequences. QoS requirements are constraints of some kind, applied against one or more functional requirements.

Use cases

A use case is a named coherent collection of related requirements centered around system capability. A use case is large-scale, typically consisting of three to 10 pages of textual requirements. Use cases define little or no functional requirements per se, but they serve as a way to organize and structure them. A good use case:

- Focuses on the user's or actor's perspective of the system (not the implementation of its interfaces or its internals)
- Captures a closely related set of requirements
- Returns a result visible to one or more actors
- Does not reveal or imply system internal structure or implementation
- Is independent from other use cases and may be concurrent
- Consists of a set of messages exchanged between the system and one or more actors (more than just one!)

Relationships among use cases can be used, but there's a caveat: newcomers to use case modeling use these relationships to do a full decomposition of the system's internal structure; this is not what I mean by use case relations. The purpose of use case relations is to depict relations among the functional requirements. The most common relations are specializations (more specific) of the dependency relation (shown using a dashed line with an arrow).



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arrowhead). The <<includes>> relation means that a larger use case includes a smaller one. For example, a use case for a spacecraft might be "Take a picture of a planet" and another might be "Send information to Earth-side Station". Executing each of these use cases involves rolling the spacecraft to the correct orientation—either to point the camera at the planet or to aim the antenna at Earth. Thus, they could both <<includes>> a smaller use case, such as "Set Attitude."

<<extends>> is similar to <<includes>> except that the smaller use case is optional and only used in certain situations. For example, suppose commands sent to a spacecraft could potentially lead to a loss of the antenna. You might want user validation and authorization guaranteed before sending such commands. In this case, the larger "Process Ground Command" use case might be extended by a "Validate User."

Additionally, one use case may be more general or specific than another. For example, there may be multiple ways to do a Validate User use case: "Validate by Authorization Code", "Validate by Fingerprint Scan", or "Validate by Voice Recognition". Each of these is a specialized form of the general Validate User use case.

We will use these relations in a very specific way when we capture requirements for large complex systems.

Detailed requirements

Since a use case is a container of detailed requirements, just providing the use case isn't enough. We need to provide the details. In the process we call this "detailing the use case."

There are two primary means to detail a use case—by example or by specification. By far, the most common is by example. This is done by constructing scenarios of message exchange between the system and the actors associated with that use case. This approach has advantages and disadvantages. The advantages include the simplicity of the representation and the fact that it is easy for non-technical stakeholders to understand how the system will behave with respect to the use case. The disadvantages include the fact that a single use case can be represented by an infinite set of scenarios; the number that is actually used must be trimmed down somehow. Also, there is typically no way to specify behaviors that are not part of the examples given.

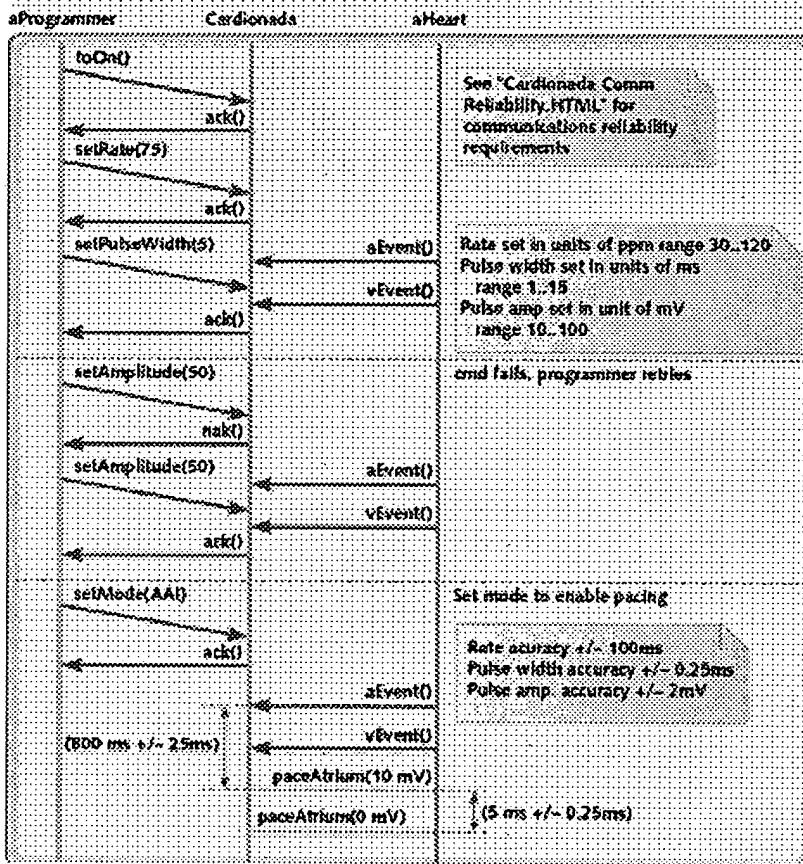
Detailing a use case by specification gets around these disadvantages by providing a single location for the details that applies to each of the infinite scenarios. It can also state prohibitions as requirements. On the downside, particular formal languages (such as statecharts) are used to specify requirements, and a high level of domain knowledge and experience with the language is required, which may disallow certain managers and marketing people from understanding the requirements. My recommendation is to generally use examples, as we will see later.

Scenarios and message sequence charts

A scenario is a specific path through a use case. The most common way of representing a scenario is a message sequence chart, as shown in Figure 1. The chart shows the interactions between the system and the actors.

are called instance lines, and at the system specification level, the actors and either the use case or the system fulfilling the role of the system prefer to use the use case because it helps me identify the context of the particular scenario. Note that at this level, we do not include objects from the system. Looking ahead, later we will add internal objects to our scenario to show how our designs actually meet our requirements, but they should not be part of the system-level use case scenarios. The goal at this point is to capture the requirements, not design.

Figure 1: Scenario example



A typical system might have anywhere from half a dozen to a dozen use cases, and each use case might have half a dozen to several dozen scenarios. Since there is an infinite set from which the scenarios can be drawn, how do you decide which ones to explicitly represent? The ROPES process guides you to add scenarios to a use case only when they demonstrate or depict something new or different. You're done when you can't come up with any more scenarios that add a new requirement.

Functional requirements are shown on sequence diagrams as ordered sequences. That is, you're showing that a particular sequence of messages must be allowed. If the order within a message set is unimportant, you can constrain {unordered} to the set of messages. QoS requirements are constraints that attach to the instance lines, individual messages, or message sets. The most common constraints are timeliness constraints applied to an ordered pair of messages. In Figure 1, a timing constraint is shown at the bottom using a common notation: a vertical line between two horizontal bars marking points in time on the scenario. Other QoS

shown in note boxes on the right of the diagram.

Specifications for requirements capture

The other primary approach to detailing requirements is to do it by Either informal or formal languages can be used, or a combination informal languages, we usually mean written specifications. Some elaborate fields used to specify the use case. For example, Schneic suggest:[3]

- Use case name
- Actors
- Priority (project)
- Status (project)
- Preconditions
- Postconditions
- Extension points
- Included use cases
- Flow of events
- List of related diagrams (sequence, statechart, activity, and :)

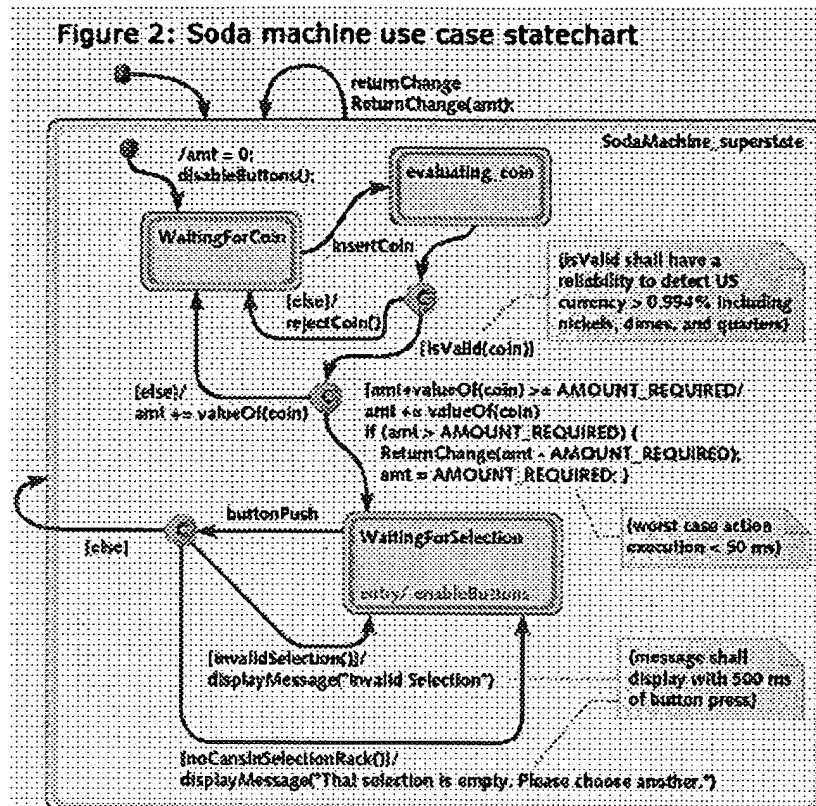
Of these, I feel only the preconditions and postconditions are required things are shown using other views (such as the diagrams themselves).

For formal languages, the UML provides the statechart and its cousin chart. Statecharts are most applicable when the use case has states distinguishable conditions of existence as defined by a set of events accepted, behaviors performed, and reachability of subsequent states. If a use case is in State A, it accepts a certain set of messages and even certain set of behaviors, and can reach a finite set of other states. These states are distinguishable from other such states in that one or more of these states are different. When an autopilot is executing "Controlling Flight Path," it can do certain things it can and cannot do when taking off vs. when in cruise states.

Activity charts are just a specialized form of a statechart. Activity charts define the primary means to transition from one state to the next and the completion of the actions executed within a state rather than upon an explicit message or event from somewhere else.

Consider a soda pop machine with two actors (the Customer and the Soda Rep). Let's focus on a Deliver Soda Can use case. It is difficult to list individually all the possible ways in which users might insert coins into the machine and press buttons to get a can of soda from the machine, even without the ability to pay the price. However, it is relatively straightforward to do so using a statechart, as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Soda machine use case statechart



The statechart in the figure has only four states to manage the transaction: user inserting coins and selecting the desired flavor of soda. [4] All states directly relevant to the specification of the use case are shown on the statechart (although not their implementation). Notice also that no internal operations are identified, but some data are: specifically, amt tracks how much the user has entered, and AMOUNT_REQUIRED is the cost of a single can of soda. The various operations used within the actions, but it isn't at all implied how many operations there are or how they relate to each other.

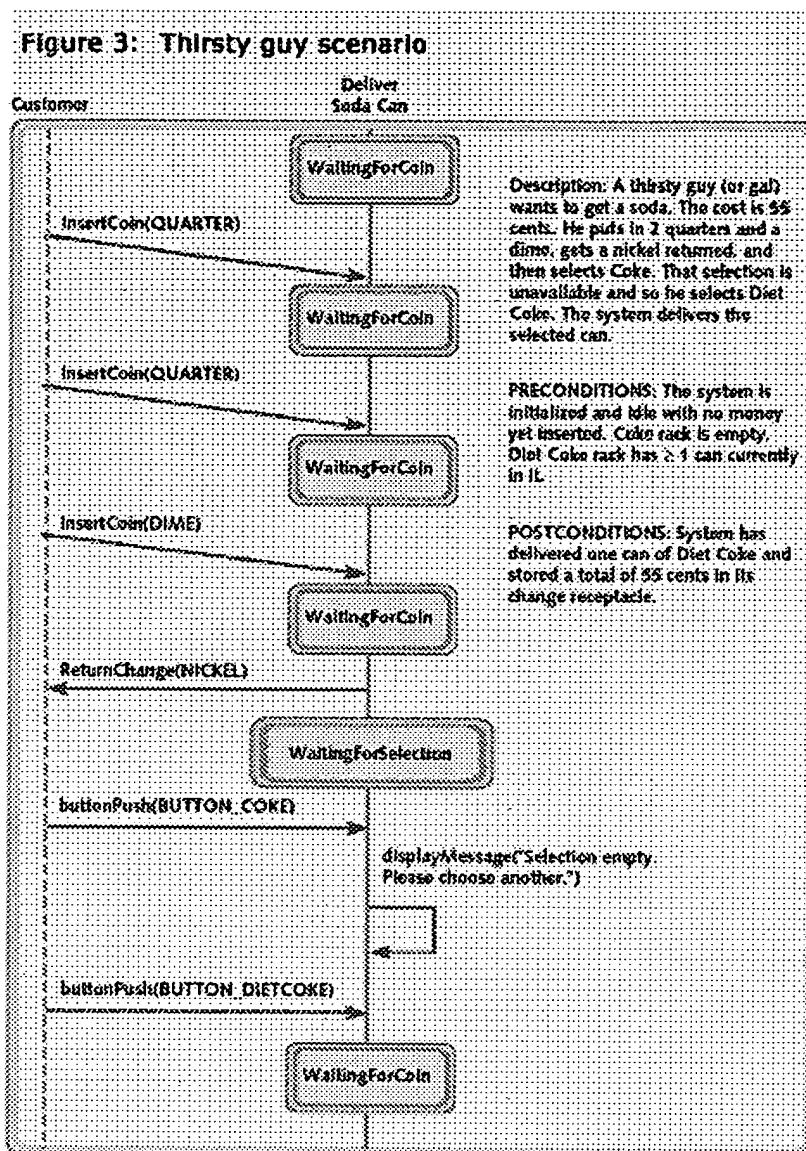
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Figure 3: Thirsty guy scenario



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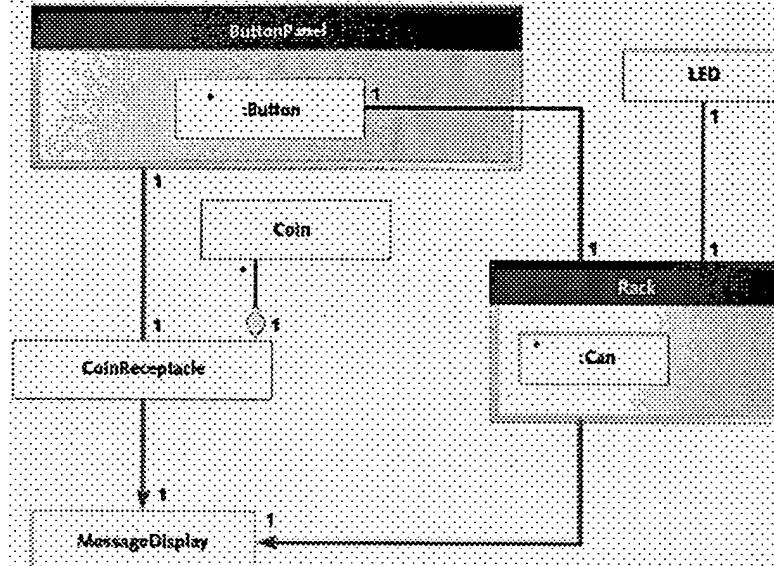
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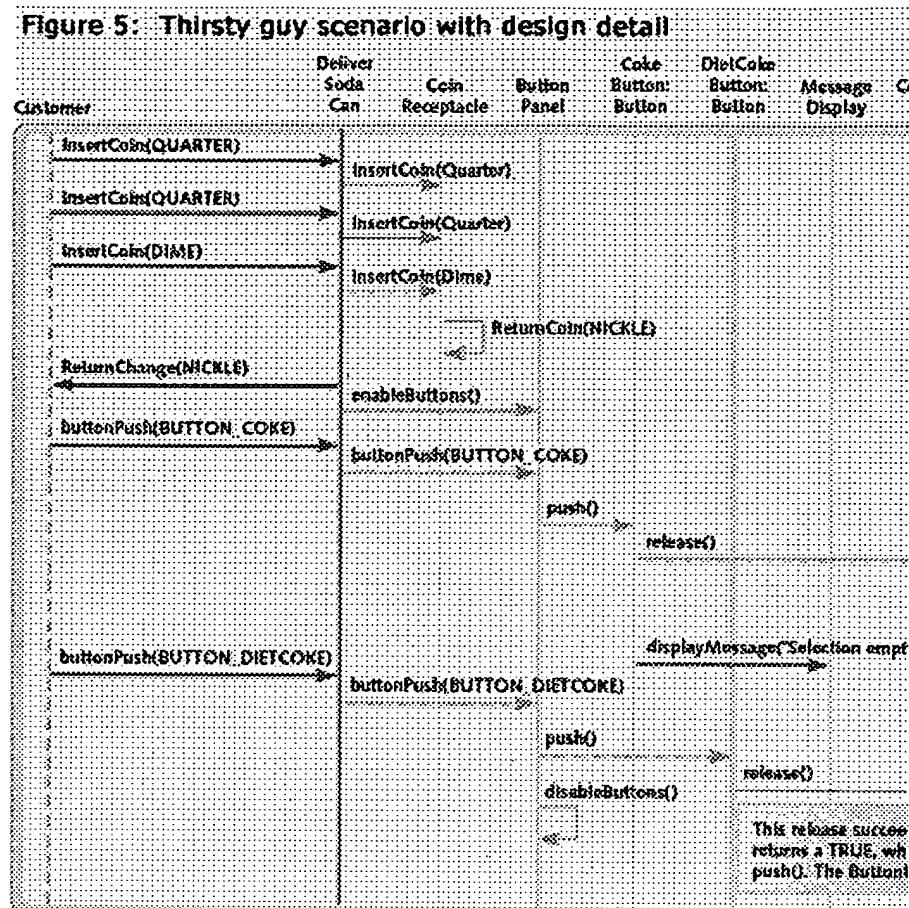


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[Back](#)

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[Back](#)

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[Back](#)

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[Back](#)

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[Back](#)

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Real-time video capture creates memory power concerns

By Ivan Greenberg
EE Times
Jun 28, 2004



As carriers and content providers usher in the wireless lifestyle, handsets will undergo an unprecedented transformation. Video capture and 3-D gaming at VGA resolution and megapixel image capture will all become commonplace in the next two years.

Until recently, mobile processors, LCD displays, image sensors and RF power amplifiers have been the focus of system designers. However, with the advent of new applications like 3-D gaming, designers are becoming increasingly aware of the energy consumed by the handsets memory subsystem.

Tomorrow's handsets will shuffle voluminous amounts of media between processor and memory subsystem, creating a new power hot spot in memory. Unlike yesterday's phone, whose internal data transfer was fundamentally limited to protocol stack processing, next-generation handsets will perform advanced signal processing on two-dimensional data such as H.264, JPEG2000 and 3-D image processing. Additionally, business applications such as Excel, PowerPoint, Word and Outlook will become commonplace on tomorrow's phones.

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To meet these requirements, memory suppliers are looking at the expected memory requirements and use model patterns of tomorrow's media-rich handset in order to formulate a solution.

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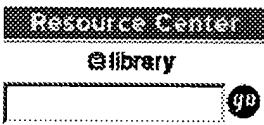
techniques for reducing energy consumption of this memory subsystem. As handset system designers have a plethora of low-power memory platforms to choose. These platforms are typically offered in multichip packages to conserve handset real estate and combine NOR, SRAM, pseudoSRAM and Nand products.

Most of today's high-end phones use NOR flash and DRAM. Many smart phones and feature phones feature two NOR devices—one for code storage and code execution, the other for data storage. Additionally, a single mobile DRAM device is used as a scratch pad for temporary storage of images and execution of media processing algorithms.

Given the state of mobile multimedia, NOR flash has served the handset platform well. However, screen resolution, image resolution and video resolution are trending at phenomenal rates, mandating nonvolatile memories with ultrafast storage bandwidth and ultralow power consumption. Given the benefits of Nand technology, this may render the choice of NOR a non sequitur. This is particularly the case for real-time video capture.

Video capture and record

The data flow requirements of video are quite different than those for image capture. Video compression requires constant DRAM read/write access, as the video frame captured occurs over several minutes, or in some cases, a single hour. DRAM power must be accounted for because it plays a large role in overall energy consumption.



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While the benefits of mobile DRAM over PC DRAM are obvious in this application of mobile double data-rate RAM (DDR) over mobile single data-rate RAM (SDR) is elusive. By reducing the clock frequency of the mobile DDR device by a factor of two, the device's active current can be reduced to half that of a mobile SDR device despite the same bandwidth. This results in a 35 percent reduction in power consumption compared to a mobile SDR device.

For the calculations below, assume a user takes 10 15-minute video clips during the course of a week. Further, assume that the user captured these clips at VGA resolution using a high-quality MPEG4 encoder with an average bit rate of 1.3 Mbits/sec. Since DRAM active current, we can assume single-bank operation.

Unlike image capture, a single 8-Mbyte bank is sufficient for holding frames, kernel and video-processing work space. Video capture and encode at VGA resolution requires on the order of 100 Mbytes/s sustained DRAM bandwidth.

For this article, let's assume a DRAM device that is capable of delivering 400 Mbytes/s when clocked at 100 MHz. Assuming 50 percent efficiency for the application memory controller, systems using this DRAM should be able to sustain 100 Mbytes/s bandwidth with a 50 percent read/write duty cycle. Duty cycle is defined here as the ratio of the average active DRAM time, or read/write accesses, to average DRAM time, or refresh mode:

Usable DDR BW = (DDR controller efficiency) x (DDR read/write duty cycle) x (DRAM bandwidth)

$$= (50 \text{ percent}) \times (50 \text{ percent}) \times (400 \text{ Mbit/s}) = 100 \text{ Mbytes/s}$$

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The DRAM energy consumed is calculated using the effective duty cycle above:

$$\text{mA-hrDRAM_active} = [(I_{\text{single_bank_active}}) \times (\text{duty cycle}) \times (15\text{-minute video clip}) \times (\text{number of clips/week})]/3,600$$

$$\text{mA-hrDRAM_active} = (45 \text{ mA}) \times (50 \text{ percent}) \times (15 \times 60) \times (10)/3,600 = 57 \text{ mA-hr}$$

While NOR's program rate can handle a video bit rate of 1.3 Mbits/s, it must store a total of 150 minutes storing the video during our contrived test week. Using the equation above below for the case of video capture, we arrive at:

$$\text{mA-hrNOR} = [(\text{number of video-clips/week}) \times (I_{\text{program}}) \times (\text{program time per minute video clip})]/3,600$$

$$\text{mA-hrNOR} = (10) \times (36 \text{ mA}) \times (975 \text{ seconds})/3,600 = 98 \text{ mA-hr}$$

If we assume same program time for NAND (150 minutes), energy consumption for Nand will be 22 percent that for NOR since Nand program current is 8 mA, versus 36 mA. This would yield a Nand energy consumption of approximately 22 mA-hr. However, algorithm developers can reduce this further by buffering up compressed data in DRAM for deferred ultra-fast store to Nand. By doing this, program time for 150 min of video (1.4 Gbytes) approaches that achieved if one were writing 1.4 Mbytes/s.

Since the video bit rate is so low, energy consumed buffering up compressed data in DRAM is a function of self-refresh current (approximately 0.15 mA). Compared to the current consumed during Nand program operation (8 mA), it becomes clear that the battle against time, buffering in DRAM has a tremendous advantage.

The equations below are used to determine energy consumption for Nand devices and DRAM devices with the assumption that system program time approaches the minimum using a 4-Mbyte/s Nand device.

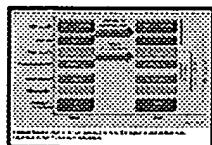
$$\text{mA-hr512 Mbit_Nand} = (10) \times (8 \text{ mA}) \times (37 \text{ seconds})/3,600 = 0.82 \text{ mA-hr}$$

$$\text{mA-hr256 Mbit_DRAM} = (10) \times (0.15 \text{ mA}) \times (900)/3,600 = 0.375 \text{ mA-hr}$$

Taking the results from all of the equation above, the power consumption for a NOR/mobile DDR subsystem comes in at 155 mA-hr, while that for a Nand/nand memory subsystem measures 58 mA-hr.

While the advantages of Nand/DRAM-based systems shown above are impressive, the new wireless frontier will stimulate the sagest memory suppliers to innovate in new areas. In the quest for lower power, we can expect future Nand/DRAM combinations to feature enhanced interfaces, novel packaging and innovative architectural elements. Regardless of the innovative path, one thing is certain: The mobile memory market will play a pivotal role in reducing power and enhancing the user's experience of handsets.

Ivan K. Greenberg (igreenberg@ssi.samsung.com) is director of strategic marketing for Samsung Semiconductor (San Jose, Calif.).



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